Viewperiod Generator for Spacecraft and the Planets

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This article describes a method, and the supporting software, developed to provide an inexpensive means of generating spacecraft and planetary viewperiods for the Deep Space Stations over a long period of time. In the past, the only method for obtaining this information was an expensive and complex computer program which provided these data as a secondary output to the actual station look angles.

The task of receiving and transmitting signals from and to spacecraft in solar orbits poses many observational problems which are unlike those of conventional astronomy.

Conventional telescopes are most frequently targeted on stellar objects whose positions are fixed on the celestial spheres. Less often, they are aimed at planets and other objects within the solar system, whose varying positions in the heavens are known with great accuracy for long into the future.

In contrast, tracking antennae are targeted most frequently on spacecraft whose paths across the sky can only be estimated in advance of launch. Once aloft and en route, their paths can be determined with sufficient accuracy for tracking purposes by using not only the laws of celestial mechanics but also those of propulsion physics. Unlike natural objects, their trajectories can be altered on command to achieve desired observational objectives.

As a consequence of these uncertainties in spacecraft trajectories, it is more difficult to make long-range plans for efficient use of the tracking antenna in the NASA Deep Space Network (DSN) operated by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL).

The efficient use of these expensive scientific instruments requires that long-range planners have reasonably accurate estimates of the times during which particular spacecraft will be in view (i.e., above the horizon) for long periods into the future. With these data, they can

determine whether two spacecraft are in view during the same period, during overlapping periods, or during non-overlapping periods. (The word *view* must be interpreted here in a radio sense rather than in an optical sense.) If two spacecraft of interest are above the horizon during the same period, but not within the beam width of one antenna, then only one can be tracked on a given day by a given station (though, of course, it is possible to use a portion of the "viewperiod" for each, rather than devoting the entire period to one and ignoring the other). On the other hand, if two spacecraft have non-overlapping viewperiods, the antenna can be aimed at the second after the first has set.

Such information (i.e., the rise and set times for each spacecraft at each station) also reflects back on other planning activities. The projected workloads developed by long-range planners may influence budgetary allocations and requests in future years, as well as manpower loading, equipment requests, and maintenance and training needs. For several years, the Jet Propulsion Laboratory has been using two partial solutions to this problem: highly accurate short-range predictions and approximate long-range predictions.

Every few days, a computer run is performed which generates precise aiming coordinates for use in tracking particular spacecraft from each station. This program, constructed on iterative principles, produces coordinates for five-minute intervals throughout the day. Rise and set times are only one of the products of these calculations. This program, known as PREDIX, is very time-consuming and expensive to operate; it requires nearly one hour of computer time (IBM 360/75) to generate two weeks of aiming coordinates. Because of convenience and need for frequency updates, these programs are rarely executed more than a few weeks in advance of need, as the results are used for actual tracking and must be as accurate as possible.

For longer future projections, a semi-graphical method has been used. JPL's Navigation and Mission Design Section has the responsibility for developing approximate trajectories and alternatives for proposed missions and maintaining accurate flight paths for vehicles already launched, using actual positional fixes. This section has developed a digital plot program, using both the Univac 1108 and a Calcomp Plotter. The output of this program (Fig. 1) is a graph containing three superimposed plots. All plots use time as one dimension, along the length of the continuous forms, so that trajectories of any time span can be shown. The other dimensions are:

- (1) Declination—the angular distance between the spacecraft and the celestial equator. This variable almost always has values ranging between -25° and +25°, since to date all spacecraft have been directed in orbits close to the ecliptic.
- (2) Range—the distance from the Earth to the space-craft. Since all spacecraft launched to date (except Pioneer 10) have had orbits not farther than that of the planet Mars, this variable usually ranges between zero and 400 million kilometers. This value can be used directly to calculate round-trip signal times at the speed of light.
- (3) Local Meridian Crossing Time-the time at which the spacecraft crosses the local meridian at the observing station. (The meridian is the line that bisects the sky as seen from any point on Earth. It starts at the north horizon, passes through the zenith, and ends at the south horizon.) The point at which any celestial object crosses the local meridian, as Earth rotates, is also the point of maximum elevation. It is rising from the horizon until it crosses the meridian; thereafter its elevation decreases until it sets. This variable can have any value between zero and 24 hours. Objects that are close to a celestial pole never rise nor set. If they are in the same hemisphere as the observing station, they trace a circle in the sky around the pole, crossing the meridian twice each day. The higher crossing is termed the superior crossing, the other is the inferior crossing. Conversely, objects close to the pole opposite the observing station never rise at all. Their circles in the sky never reach above the horizon. To date, no spacecraft have been sent in orbits so close to the poles that they are in constant view (or constant eclipse) from any station.

Using these plots as a starting point, we have developed a computer method for generating rise and set times for any spacecraft, as viewed from any point on Earth, for any period and as far into the future as trajectories have been calculated. This program can produce these times for every single day, if desired. For practical purposes, however, it is usually sufficient to produce them at weekly or monthly intervals, since the day-to-day changes are quite small (2–5 minutes), and may be determined by interpolation when closer intervals are required.

In addition to the data from these plots, two other data inputs are required: the geocentric coordinates of each station (i.e., latitude and longitude on Earth's surface), and the profile of the local horizon around each station.

The phrase that JPL uses to describe this local horizon profile is "horizon mask," the term implying that a celestial object is masked from view (whether visual or radio) until it rises above the surrounding hills and mountains. This horizon mask is most conveniently represented graphically by a chart termed a "stereographic projection" (see Fig. 2).

This chart is representative of the charts developed for each station. The outer circle represents the entire sky as seen from the observation point. The shaded area around the circumference of the circle represents that portion of the sky which is not visible due to the neighboring hills, and shows the irregularity characteristic of natural topographic features. The numerous intersecting lines, circles and arcs on the chart represent the two different coordinate systems used for celestial observation. One of these systems is Earth-centered, the other is sky-centered.

Though these charts do represent the entire visible sky as seen from each of the stations in the DSN, they include some portions of the celestial sphere which are outside the observational range of the antennae. These further restrictions on viewing are a consequence of the manner in which the antennae are supported, and moved to compensate for the apparent motion of the spacecraft across the sky as Earth rotates.

These mechanical limitations on spacecraft tracking are shown on the stereographic projections represented in Fig. 2. The heavy blocked line around the figure indicates the tracking limits. The small arc near the celestial pole indicates that celestial objects close to that pole cannot be observed throughout the 24 hours. The jagged balance of this line, generally outside the circle, indicates that in these regions the antenna can be pointed below the horizon—or actually at the ground.

We shall now use the stereographic projection in Fig. 2 to illustrate the principles upon which our viewperiod generator computer program was constructed.

Let us start with an object whose declination is 0° , i.e., it lies precisely on the celestial equator. If we examine the chart closely, we see that the equator crosses the horizon mask about 1° from the eastern horizon, or 89° from the meridian. Since Earth rotates a full 360° in one day, a point on the celestial sphere seems to move equally 360° in a day, or, most simply, it takes four minutes for an object to move 1° . We therefore determine that the object will rise above the horizon (if it is on the equator) 5 hours and 56 minutes before it crosses the meridian $(89^{\circ} \times 4 \text{ minutes} = 356 \text{ minutes} = 55 \text{ minutes})$. Similarly, we observe that

the celestial equator crosses the western horizon mask exactly at sea level. The object will therefore remain in view while Earth rotates 90°. We thus determine that the object will set 6h 0m after it crosses the meridian. The total view-period duration will be the sum of these two times, or 11h 56m. The actual local times of rise and set are determined by subtracting and adding these two time intervals to the time of local meridian crossing. For example, if the object crosses the meridian at 09:52 local time, its rise is at 03:56 and its set is at 15:52.

However, local times are not adequate for the operation of the DSN. Being a worldwide operation, it must use a uniform time standard for all its stations, and has selected Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) as that standard. The local time can be easily converted to GMT by adding or subtracting the time required for Earth to rotate from the Greenwich meridian to the local meridian, which time is a direct function of the longitude of the station. Since DSS 12 is approximately 118° west of the Greenwich meridian, its time difference from GMT is 7h 52m. Therefore, the GMT rise time for the above example is 20:04 of the previous day, its GMT set time is 08:00 of the same day.

For a second example, let us choose an object whose declination is -24° , or 24° south of the celestial equator. Examining the stereographic chart, we see that at this declination, the angular distance from the meridian to the eastern horizon mask is 72° . The time equivalent of this angle is 4h 48m ($72^{\circ} \times 4m = 288m = 4h$ 48m). Similarly, the angular distance from the meridian to the western horizon is 65° , and its time equivalent is 4h 20m. The duration of the viewperiod is the sum of these two, or 9h 8m. Note that this viewperiod is substantially shorter than for an object at the celestial equator. Also note that an object whose declination is greater than 48° south does not rise above the horizon at all.

For a final example, let us choose an object whose declination is $+10^{\circ}$, or north of the celestial equator. The chart shows that the angular distance between the meridian and the eastern horizon is 100° , for a time equivalent of 6h 40m. However, we also observe that this declination are intersects the heavy line representing the mechanical limits imposed by the HA–dec mounting of the antenna. The angular distance from the meridian to this limit is only 90° , for a time equivalent of 6h 0m. This difference illustrates the fact that, for celestial objects at this declination, observation cannot begin when the object rises above the horizon, but must wait until it comes within pointing range of the antenna, some 40 minutes later. Assuming, again, a local meridian crossing time of 09:52, such an object rises above the horizon at 03:12, but cannot be

observed until 03:52. Similarly, the angular distance along the $+10^{\circ}$ declination are from the meridian to the western horizon is 97° , for a time equivalent of 6h 27m. Again, the mechanical limits imposed by the mounting restrict the actual viewing angle to 90° or 6h 0m. (Note that at high declinations, the angular distances east and west are equal. This is a consequence of the fact that the mounting is symmetrical.) Thus the object passes out of practical viewing range some 27 minutes before it actually drops below the horizon.

These three examples illustrate the three variables required to calculate local rise and set times:

- (1) The time of the local meridian crossing.
- (2) The declination of the object.
- (3) The angular distance along the declination arc from the meridian to each horizon, or to the mechanical antenna limits in extreme latitudes.

A fourth variable, the longitude of the station, is all that is further required to convert these local times to GMT.

An interesting aspect of this approach to the solution of determining long-range rise and set times is the fact that the local meridian crossing time is the same for all stations, regardless of longitude. We are aware that when the Sun crosses the local meridian, it is local noon. Another celestial object on the Sun's meridian will also cross the local meridian at local noon. An object (say the moon whose angular distance is 30° in advance of the Sun's meridian will cross the local meridian 2 hours in advance of noon, or 10:00. And any object whose angular distance from the Sun's meridian is known will cross the local meridian at a time before or after noon, which is a direct function of the time equivalent of that angular distance.

This point must not be taken too literally. The position of an object on the celestial sphere does vary slightly from day to day. For a stellar object, this variation is the difference between a solar day and a sidereal day, or about 4 minutes. For an object pursuing a solar orbit in the same direction as Earth (i.e., a spacecraft), this variation is somewhat less. For Pioneer 10, it is about 2.5 minutes. For objects pursuing a solar orbit within Earth's orbit, the variation is somewhat greater than 4 minutes per day. As a consequence, the local meridian crossing time of a spacecraft is not precisely identical for all stations in the DSN, but the difference is seldom more than a minute or two. This variation is not of sufficient significance to affect long-range planning data, and this refinement has not been included in the program we have developed.

The declination of a celestial object also varies slightly from day to day, though this variation is even smaller than the variations in local meridian crossing time. If we again examine the sterographic projection in Fig. 2, we see that as an object moves from one declination level to another, the angular distance along the declination arc from the meridian to the horizon increases as the object approaches the pole, and decreases as it recedes from the pole. The observational consequence is that the viewperiod lengthens as the object approaches the pole, and decreases as it recedes.

If there were an object in the solar system whose position was fixed, its declination would vary as the Earth made its annual trip around the Sun, reaching a maximum of about $+23^{\circ}$ at one point in the year, and a minimum of -23° six months later. There is, of course, no such stationary object. The nearest approximation is the planet Pluto, whose annual motion across the sky is somewhat less than 2°, since it requires 248 Earth years to complete its single solar circuit. Thus, the declination plot (see Fig. 1) of the planet Pluto would show a cycle of about 367 days, just slightly more than a year. The nearer superior planets (Neptune, Uranus, Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars) would have declination plots showing progressively larger cycles: almost 400 days for Jupiter and over 600 days for Mars. The two inferior planets (Venus and Mercury) speed around the Sun much faster than Earth. Their declination plots show cycles of much less than a year: about 200 days for Venus and about 100 days for Mercury.

The declination plots of the planets are not precisely repeated in each cycle. The nominal maximum and minimum values of $+23^{\circ}$ and -23° are for objects which are precisely in the ecliptic, the plane of Earth's orbit. All the planets have orbits whose planes are inclined at varying (though small) degrees to the ecliptic. The actual plots over long periods may show variations as great as $+30^{\circ}$ to -30° or as little as from $+16^{\circ}$ to -16° . The declination pattern is never precisely repeated, since the revolution times of all the planets are incommensurable with Earth's year. This cyclical variation in local meridian crossing time and declination should be kept in mind when interpolating values from the tables we have produced.

Interpolation will provide rise and set times with errors usually less than those inherent in the approximate method used. These errors will be smallest when the declination plot is straight or nearly so. They will be largest when the plot is sharply curved, i.e., near the times of maximum and minimum declination. Interpolations will show the largest

errors for plots which oscillate rapidly (those of Mercury and Venus) and the smallest for the slowly oscillating plots, particularly Mars.

The computer program has been designed to provide rise and set times for any object anywhere in the celestial sphere, i.e., for any object with a declination between -90° (south celestial pole) and $+90^{\circ}$ (north celestial pole). Since the horizon mask at each station varies irregularly, the program includes a set of tables for each station defining this mask. Table 1 is a sample set for DSS 12. It gives, for each degree of declination, the angular distance to the east and to the west horizon masks. These values were obtained by visual scaling from the stereographic projection shown in Fig. 2. Note that the table gives zero values for declinations between -90° and -49°, indicating that celestial objects at these southern latitudes can never be viewed from Goldstone. Between -48° and $+81^{\circ}$, the table shows gradually increasing values (sharply at first, then more slowly), indicating that as an object climbs northward, its viewperiod lengthens. Above +16° to 81°, the values are constant, indicating that in this range, the mechanical antenna limits rather than the topographic horizon determine the bounds of the viewperiod. Finally, from +82° to +90°, the values revert to zero, indicating that the polar mounting of the antenna prevents aiming it this close to the north celestial pole.

The accuracy of this table is limited by the scale of the stereographic projection from which it was derived. We have used one degree as our scale interval, which corresponds to a time interval of 4 minutes. The accuracy of our calculations is thus on the order of ± 2 minutes, perhaps more if the actual declination is between scale points. This accuracy can, of course, be improved if declination points were chosen more closely than one degree, and if the declination arcs are measured to a finer degree of accuracy than one degree.

Though this table lookup feature can be used to determine viewperiods for the az-el stations as well as the HA-dec stations, the horizon mask of the former is amenable to a straightforward mathematical solution rather than a table lookup. The declination arc of a celestial object is part of a small circle on the celestial sphere, parallel to the great circle that is its equator. The length of this arc (β) is a function of three angles:

- (1) λ , the latitude of the station
- (2) δ , the declination of the object

(3) β , the minimum elevation for observation (the DSN uses 6°) and can be found by a trigonometric analysis of the sphere:

$$\cos \beta = \frac{\sin \beta}{\cos \delta \cos \lambda} - \tan \delta \tan \lambda$$

This equation is used to determine rise and set times at the three 64-m Deep Space Stations. Since it is an exact formula, the rise and set times at these stations are not subject to the table lookup errors of the times at the other stations.

Data are input to the program via a card deck. Each card contains:

- (1) Date.
- (2) Local meridian crossing time.
- (3) Declination.

From each card, the program computes the local rise and set times at each station, using either table lookup or trignometric formula as appropriate. These are then converted to GMT using the station longitude. This array is then printed out, along with the date.

This logic is repeated for each data card until the entire deck is read. Thus, the date intervals may be regular or irregular. Also, the cards may be in order, though any order other than strictly chronological would be confusing to a user.

A sample input data deck listing is shown in Table 2, and a sample output listing is shown in Table 3. The first three columns of the output simply repeat the input, for visual verification in situations where there is suspicion of error.

We are continuing to develop this program to increase its speed, economy, timeliness, and accuracy. We are adapting the trajectory program which now produces the declination and local meridian crossing plots, to produce digital output in a form suitable for input to this program. This step will save the time now required to read and interpolate the plots, and reduce the possibility of error in transferring these data to punched cards. When this step is completed, it will be necessary only to enter basic trajectory parameters (position, velocity, and acceleration) and have the computer generate declinations and local meridian crossing times first at specified intervals and then the viewperiods themselves.

Somewhat further downstream, we would like to develop the capability of showing these plots graphically, rather than numerically, on a remote terminal display. It will then be possible to punch a few buttons to identify the time period, station(s), and spacecraft and get an instant visual display of conflicts and overlaps.

Though this program was developed primarily to support the spacecraft tracking responsibilities of the DSN, it appears to have broader uses. Other radio astronomy sensors at other locations around the globe can use it to generate their own viewperiods for planetary and even stellar objects.

Optical astronomy may be able to use the program, after modifying it to include periods of darkness and daytime for similar planning of their observing schedules. Such modifications would be particularly useful, where

- (1) The observatory has a non-uniform horizon mask.
- (2) Atmospheric conditions prevent adherence to a planned schedule, and instant readjustments must be made.

Table 1. Sample horizon mask for DSS 12

Declination	Rise	Set	Declination	Rise	Set	Declination	Rise	Set
-90			-30	67	59	30	94	95
89	0	0	-29	68	60	31	94	95
-88	0	0	-28	70	61	32	94	95
-87	0	0	-27	70	62	33	94	95
86	0	0	-26	70	64	34	94	95
-85	0	0	-25	72	64	35	94	95
-84	0	0	-24	72	65	36	94	95
-83	0	0	-23	73	66	37	94	95
-82	0	0	-22	75	67	38	94	95
-81	0	0	-21	76	68	39	94	95
-80	Õ	ő	-20	76	70	40	94 94	95
-79	Ö	Ö	-19	76	71	41	94 94	
-78	0	0	-18	70 77	72			95
-77	0	0	$-18 \\ -17$			42	94	95
-76				77	72 53	43	94	95
	0	0	-16	77	73	44	94	95
-7 5	0	0	-15	78	74	45	94	95
-74	0	0	-14	78	75	46	94	95
-73	0	0	-13	80	76	47	94	95
-72	0	0	-12	81	77	48	94	95
-71	0	0	-11	82	79	49	94	95
-70	0	0	-10	82	80	50	94	95
-69	0	0	9	83	81	51	94	95
-68	0	0	-8	83	82	52	94	95
-67	0	0	-7	84	83	53	94	95
-66	0	ŏ	_ 6	85	84	54	94	95
-65	ő	0	-5	85	84			
-64	0	0	-3 -4			55 50	94	95
-63				86	85	56	94	95
	0	0	3	86	85	57	94	95
-62	0	0	-2	88	86	58	94	95
-61	0	0	-1	89	87	59	94	95
-60	0	0	0	89	90	60	94	95
-59	0	0	1	90	90	61	94	95
-58	0	0	2	90	90	62	94	95
-57	0	0	3	90	90	63	94	95
-56	0	0	4	90	90	64	94	95
-55	0	0	5	90	90	65	94	95
-54	ŏ	Ö	6	90	90	66	94	95
-53	0	Ö	7	90	90 90			
-52	0	0				67	94	95
			8	90	90	68	94	95
-51	0	0	9	90	90	69	94	95
-50	0	0	10	90	90	70	94	95
-49	0	0	11	90	90	71	94	95
-48	40	7	12	90	90	72	94	95
-47	43	30	13	90	90	73	94	95
-46	44	31	14	90	90	74	94	95
-45	45	32	15	90	90	75	94	95
-44	46	34	16	94	95	76	94	95
-43	48	37	17	94	95	77	94	95
-42	50	40	18	94	95	78		95
-41	5 1						94	
		42	19	94	95	79	94	95
-40	52	43	20	94	95	80	94	95
-39	54	45	21	94	95	81	94	95
-38	56	47	22	94	95	82	0	C
-37	58	50	23	94	95	83	0	0
-36	60	52	24	94	95	84	0	(
-35	61	52	25	94	95	85	Ö	Ò
-34	63	52	26	94	95	86	0	Č
-33	64	53	27	94	95	87	0	0
-32	65	56	28	94 94	95 95			
-32	66					88	0	0
$-31 \\ -30$	66 67	58 59	29 30	94 94	95 95	89	0	0
	5 7	511	20	1)4	O.S.	90	0	0

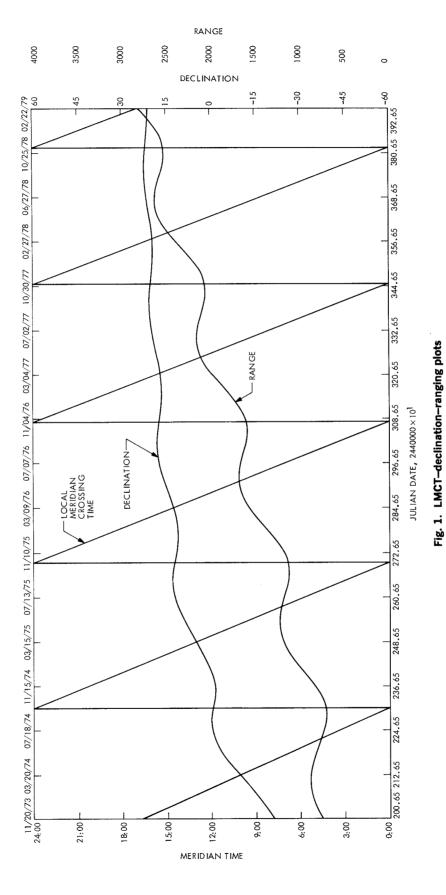
Table 2. Sample input data deck listing

72 227PN-F	90-15
72 327PN-F	43-32
72 426PN-F	20-29
72 525PN-F	231-25
72 625PN-F	212-23
72 725PN-F	195-23
72 824PN-F	182-24
72 923PN-F	168-25
721023PN-F	157-25
721123PN-F	144-24
721222PN-F	132-23
73 121PN-F	119-22
73 220PN-F	107-19 91-17
73 320PN-F 73 421PN-F	73-16
73 421FN-F 73 520PN-F	57-16
73 620PN-F	34-16
73 719PN-F	11-17
73 819PN-F	229-19
73 918PN-F	206-20
731018PN-F	187-20
731117PN-F	167-19
731220PN-F	151-17
74 120PN-F	138-15
74 220PN-F	123-12
74 320PN-F	108- 9
74 419PN-F	94- 6
74 518PN-F	78- 3
74 618PN-F	60- 1
74 718PN-F	41. 1
74 818PN-F	22. 1
74 917PN-F	1. 0
741016PN-F	220- 1 220- 1
741115PN-F 741215PN-F	182. 0
741213FN-F 75 115PN-F	166. 2
75 215PN-F	148. 4
75 315PN-F	131. 6
75 415PN-F	117. 8
75 514PN-F	99.10
75 614PN-F	80.12
75 713PN-F	72.13
75 813PN-F	47.14
75 912PN-F	24.14
751011PN-F	1.13
751110PN-F	221.12
751210PN-F	200.12
76 1 9PN-F	182.12
76 2 9PN-F	163.13
76 3 9PN-F	145.14
76 4 8PN-F	130.15
76 5 8PN-F	112.16
76 6 7PN-F	93.17
76 7 7PN-F	77.18
76 8 7PN-F	58.18 39.19
76 9 6PN-F	17.18
7610 5PN-F	235.17
7611 4PN-F 7612 4PN-F	235.17 217.17
7612 4FN-F 77 1 4PN-F	195.17
77 1 4FN-F 77 2 4PN-F	176.17
// 2 4th-p	110.11

Table 3. Sample output listing for Pioneer 10a

Limit	Declination	Date	Week	DSS 11		DSS 12		DSS 14		DSS 42		DSS 51		DSS 61		DSS 62	
Lillic	Decimation	Date	WCCK	Rise	Set												
0900	-15	2/27/72	2 9	1154	2146	1134	2142	1203	2131	1703	0523	0112	1308	0436	1348	0416	1408
0418	-32	3/27/72	2 13	0832	1524	0744	1548	0833	1537	1129	0109	2030	0826	0106	0758	0046	0806
0200	29	4/26/72	17	0558	1330	0514	1346	0559	1335	0911	2251	1812	0608	2236	0556	2216	0608
2306	-25	5/25/72	2 21	0240	1108	0204	1108	0245	1101	0641	1957	1518	0314	1930	0314	1906	0334
2112	-23	6/25/72	2 25	0038	0922	0006	0922	0043	0915	0455	1755	1324	0120	1724	0128	1708	0148
1930	-23	7/25/72	30	2256	0740	2224	0740	2301	0733	0313	1613	1142	2338	1542	2346	1526	0006
1812	-24	8/24/72	34	2142	0618	2110	0618	2147	0611	0151	1455	1024	2220	1432	2224	1412	2240
1648	-25	9/23/72	38	2022	0450	1946	0450	2027	0443	0023	1339	0900	2056	1312	2056	1248	2116
1542	-25	10/23/72	42	1916	0344	1840	0344	1921	0337	2317	1233	0754	1950	1206	1950	1142	2010
1424	-24	11/23/72	47	1754	0230	1722	0230	1759	0223	2203	1107	0636	1832	1044	1836	1024	1852
1312	-23	12/22/72	51	1638	0122	1606	0122	1643	0115	2055	0955	0524	1720	0924	1728	0908	1748
1154	-22	1/21/73	3	1516	0008	1440	8000	1521	0001	1945	0837	0406	1602	0758	1614	0742	1634
1042	-19	2/20/73	8	1348	2312	1324	2312	1357	2301	1837	0721	0254	1450	0634	1518	0614	1530
0905	-17	3/20/73	3 12	1204	2144	1144	2140	1217	2129	1701	0537	0118	1314	0450	1350	0430	1406
0718	-16	4/21/73	3 16	1012	2000	0956	1956	1025	1945	1517	0345	2330	1126	0258	1206	0238	1222
0542	-16	5/20/73	3 20	0836	1824	0820	1820	0849	1809	1341	0209	2154	0950	0122	1030	0102	1046
0324	-16	6/20/73	3 25	0618	1606	0602	1602	0631	1551	1123	2351	1936	0732	2304	0812	2244	0828
0106	-17	7/19/73	3 29	0404	1344	0344	1340	0417	1329	0901	2137	1718	0514	2050	0550	2030	0606
2254	-19	8/19/73	3 33	0200	1124	0136	1124	0209	1113	0649	1933	1506	0302	1846	0330	1826	0342
2035	-20	9/18/73	3 37	2350	0902	2318	0902	2355	0851	0427	1715	1248	0044	1628	0104	1612	0120
1842	-20	10/18/73	3 42	2156	0708	2124	0708	2201	0657	0233	1521	1054	2250	1434	2310	1418	2326
1642	19	11/17/73	3 46	1948	0512	1924	0512	1957	0501	0037	1321	0854	2050	1234	2118	1214	2130
1506	-17	12/20/73	3 50	1804	0344	1744	0340	1817	0329	2301	1137	0718	1914	1050	1950	1030	2006
1348	-15	1/20/74	4 3	1642	0234	1622	0230	1651	0219	2151	1011	0600	1756	0924	1836	0904	1856
1218	-12	2/20/74	4 8	1504	0120	1440	0112	1513	0057	2033	0829	0434	1626	0738	1718	0726	1730
1048	-9	3/20/74	12	1330	2358	1302	2358	1331	2339	1911	0647	0308	1456	0552	1556	0548	1608

^aView periods 1972–1976.



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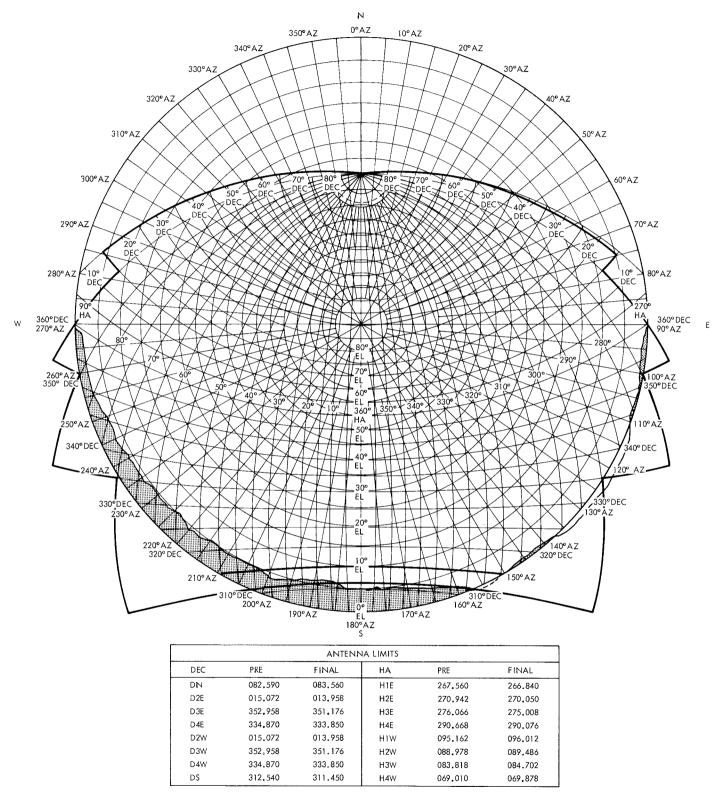


Fig. 2. Sample stereographic projection